VOL. V, NO. 2 FEBRUARY, 1966

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NORTH AMERICAN JOURNAL OF NUMISMATICS

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VOL. V, NO. 2 FEBRUARY, 1966

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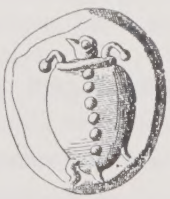

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From the Editor's Desk

Classical studies have been confined for centuries to the activities and people in the Mediterranean littoral. When antiquity is mentioned, one's thoughts turn automatically to Greece and Rome; when ancient history is mentioned, it is Greek history or Roman history that is intended; even when ancient coins are the subject, what is usually meant is Greek and Roman coins.

Such thinking leads to rather restricted views of the ancient world, views which are no longer safe to hold. There were vast areas of land which remained outside the boundaries of Hellenistic influence or the Roman Empire. There were countless people who lived and died, built their own civilizations and coined their own money outside of what has been traditionally looked upon as the ancient world.

There were, contemporary with Greece and Rome, thriving civilizations, even empires, in India, China and Central Asia. That we know less about these people is due both to a paucity of literary sources and a failure of scholars to investigate them. That they were known to the Greeks and Romans who both fought and traded with them is indisputable, and today the young science of archaeology is doing much to recreate the proper world view of ancient history.

In many ways, numismatics can supply more evidence than any other source of the extent to which Greece and Rome went beyond their own frontiers: beyond the bounds which we, in our own provincialism have assigned to them.

In Bactria the Greek coin types and inscriptions were copied; the Valshani Empire coined gold on the standard of the Roman Aureus.

Hellenistic and Roman silver is found in hoards in India and Indo-China. Roman coins circulated in the north on the Baltic and in the south beyond the Sahara. The influence of Greek coin style on the never conquered Celts which pervaded well into the medieval period is only now being investigated.

The ancient authors, particularly the Roman historians, regarded good writing as that which analyzed the personalities of the men who were important. Their information about events and policy is often mentioned only as parenthetical notes and thus it falls upon the archaeologist and the numismatist to reconstruct the ancient world in its entirety.

For it was a wider world than we have imagined. It extended from the wilds of Britain to the Pacific from Scandinavia to the remotest jungles of central Africa.

Our knowledge of Greece and Rome is itself deficient until we know more fully the extent to which our own historical ancestors were influenced by peoples only vaguely known to us. The world of antiquity was a much wider world then we have hitherto imagined, and our science holds many of the keys which will unlock the secrets of that world.

JOHN E. HARTMANN, Editor

* * * * *

The island of Delos, one of the group which lies in the Aegean off the Peloponnese, called The Cyclades, was the source of a recently discovered hoard of gold and silver coins.

A rebellion against Roman rule occurred on the island in 88 BC after which it was literally devastated by the Romans. The hoard was presumed to have been laid down shortly before or during the uprising.

No news as to the disposition of the hoard has been received, nor was the provenance of the coins contained in the news releases.

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THE OBVERSE TYPES ON THE COINS OF SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS FROM THE "EMESA" MINT

by Douglas D. Smith

During the civil war between Septimius Severus and Pescennius Niger from 193 to 195 both men employed local mints in Syria and its environs to strike coins. Mattingly,[1] on the basis of style, recognizes five separate mints active for Septimius and one (presumably Antioch) for Niger. It has thus far not been determined where Severus located his mints although one almost certainly was at Laodicia ad mare.

The coins under discussion in this article are those which Mattingly tentatively assigns to Emesa. He does so on several logical grounds. The city was the home of the family of Julia Domna and it early declared for Septimius. Attempts to assign this group of coins to Tarsus in Cilicia are defeated by the evidence of the Dura hoards which argue for an origin closer than Asia Minor. Bellinger's argument for Zeugma has no more pressing evidence than Mattingly's choice of Emesa. Nevertheless, the location of this mint must remain tentative until more evidence is found.[2]

The "Emesa" mint operated from the beginning of the war with Niger in 193 until the departure of Severus upon the completion of his Parthian campaign in 195. Aurei were struck at an average of 7.35 grams and denarii were produced at an average of c. 3.12 grams. The silver alloy ranged about 500 fine. There are some denarii which appear to be casts, but there is much doubt as to whether these were official issues.

Septimius is portrayed in two styles. Coins of the first type bear a long, thin head of the emperor which in almost every case is facing right.[3] This portrait is associated with three major obverse legends:

(a) IMP CAE L SEP SEV PERT AVG
(b) IMP CAE L SEP SEV PERT AVG COS I
(c) IMP CAE L SEP SEV PERT AVG COS II

The first legend (a) was used in 193 by all mints which struck for Septimius. The third (c), refers to the consulship which Severus assumed in 194 and is therefore limited to the issues of 194 and 195.[4]

The common Roman practice of designating the first consulship was simply COS without a numeral. This has caused the COS I legend to be explained as COS II with the second "I" lost on the truncation of the bust. However this type occurs with a large number of reverses. Several were found in the Dura hoards and are illustrated in Mr. Bellinger's report

on the third and fourth hoards.[5] The fact that the Romans never expressed the first consulship in this manner is of less significance in this case as these coins were produced far from the center of Roman tradition by mint workers who were not acquainted with it. It can be observed that legends (a) and (b) are found only on coins of the first portrait style. The first portrait is found on only a few coins of legend (c).

The vast majority of coins which bear legend (c) portray Septimius with a rounded head. This second portrait appears on all coins dated to 195 (TRP III) and a large number of coins which bear no dating device beyond the COS II.

It would appear that the "Emesa" mint began operation in late 193 with issues bearing the first portrait and legend (a). Near the end of the year the legend was changed to include COS I. Although the reverse of this arrangement is possible, the progress of style indicates the former rather than the latter order.

The beginning of 194 and Septimius' second consulship resulted in the issues bearing COS II. Soon after this change, the second portrait style was begun.

A number of minor varieties in the obverse legends were produced by the "Emesa" mint. Perhaps the most common of those which substitute Greek letters in Latin legends. Such errors are easily understood if one assumes that the language of the die cutters was not native Latin and possibly they did not understand it at all.[6] These minor variations should not obscure the three major inscription types which it has been the purpose of this paper to present.

(Continued on page 41)

1

Figure 1. Denarius, 18 mm, obverse legend (a) — Head laureate right. Rx/ FORTVNAE REDVCI, Hilaritas standing, faces left. Similar in type to BMC type but with variance in reverse inscription. Previously unpublished.

FIG. 2

FIG. 3

Figure 2. Obverse legend (b), Denarius 18 mm — Head Laureate right. Rx/ VICTOR IVST AVG, Victory walking left. Previously unpublished.

Figure 3. Enlargement of coin shown in Figure 2 showing absence of any second "I" in the COS I legend.

Figure 4. Denarius, 17 mm, Obverse legend (c) Head laureate right. Rx/ MONETA AVG, Moneta standing facing left. Previously unpublished.

Figure 5. Denarius, 18 mm, Obverse legend (c), second portrait type head laureate faces right. Rx/ FELI CIT TEM POR, Crossed cornucopias with torch.

The unpublished coins are variants on types found in the British Museum Catalogue; variation existing in execution of reverse inscriptions. See Vol. V, pp. 87 ff.

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NOTES:

[1] Harold Mattingly. COINS OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM. Vol. V. London. 1950. pp. cvii ff.

[2] An avenue which has yet to be explored is possible die links between these coins and the provincial issues of various Syrian mints during this period. Such linkages. could they be verified. might serve to definitely pin down the location of the mint. Emesa issued no known coins for Septimius. but did issue civic bronze for Julia. These coins are dated by the Seleucid era to the years 215 and 216. some time after our discussion. The inscriptions reveal that Emesa had received colonial status sometime during the reign of the Severi.

[3] All coins pictured in the plates are denarii.

[4] His second — His first was before he became Augustus.

[5] Alfred R. Bellinger. THE THIRD AND FOURTH DURA HOARDS, NNM 55, New York, 1932.

[6] No effort has been made to date the provenance of the "error" coins. The possibility always exists that these occurred early in the coinage sequence and could be due to a lack of punches for Latin inscriptions.

THE NUMISMATIC REVIEW

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JEWISH SHEKELS OF THE FIRST REVOLT A PRELIMINARY REPORT[1]

by Charles Colbert

This series of silver coins, by virtue of the technical excellence of its execution, has attracted the interest of many numismatists and has been the subject of over 300 studies. Despite this there remain a number of crucial questions about them which are yet to be answered. In relating these coins to their historic setting it is necessary to confront several implicit problems among which are: establishing the metallic composition of the coins as well as that of the contemporaneous tetradrachms of Tyre to which the Jewish coins bear a considerable physical and inscriptional resemblance. If possible, it would be helpful to try to isolate the source of the silver used. The numismatic peculiarities of the coins should be isolated and in this regard an attempt made to distinguish the number of dies used in their production. Finally, these questions should lead to the all important problem of the precise uses and significance of these particular coins.

The purpose of the study is to deal with each of these questions in turn and as a by-product of this research to produce as complete a catalog of types as can be compiled.

Since metallic composition to date has received minor consideration, this problem is under intensive investigation. The Conservation Laboratory at the Smithsonian Institution has performed X-ray diffraction tests on nine genuine and four false pieces.[2] A selection of 21 shekels and forgeries is presently being tested by neutron activation at the laboratories of the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority at Wantage, England. These tests are designed to reveal the principal constituents of the coin in its entirety. Upon completion of the tests in England the coins will be subjected to a similar test by the General Atomic Division of General Dynamics Corporation in California as a constancy check.

The Vernay laboratories in Yellow Springs, Ohio, have already performed X-ray diffraction tests on scrapings from a year one shekel. Findings of the test (subject of course to the inherent errors of the method) indicate that gold and platinum are present in significant amounts in addition to the expected copper and silver. Other surface impurities include lead, tin, zinc and titanium.

No one has discovered the source of silver used in preparing these shekels. Were they perhaps manufactured by melting down tetradrachmae from Tyre in nearby Phoenicia? Reifen-

berg states that the ". . . tradition of the Tosephta expressly states that 'all money of which the law speaks is Tyrean money.' Not only was the half shekel for the temple dues to be paid in Tyrean money, but as the Talmud especially orders, the five shekels which had to be paid as redemption of the first born were also to be of Tyrean *weight*."[3] If this is accepted it seems likely that trace elements present in Tyrean coins might also appear in Jewish coins.

The second commandment which prohibits graven images would have made either Tyrean or Roman money unacceptable for religious purposes among the Jews. It is upon this point that hinges our supposition that the Tyrean coins in particular might have provided the bullion from which the Jewish shekels were minted.

To further explore this possibility, the British Museum, which has already provided significant aid to this project, has been asked to send specimens of Tyrean tetradrachms to Wantage for neutron activation tests similar to those being performed on the shekels. A marked similarity between the metallic composition of the Tyrean and Jewish coins might tend to confirm our hypothesis.

(Continued on page 46)

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Were these coins used as a medium of exchange in the money economy or were they merely a symbolic form in which the temple treasure was prepared for storage? Arguments can be raised to support either contention. The generally excellent preservation of the extant coins, minor wear, painful execution, monumental script, lack of inscriptional errors and the use of a symbol of an object of temple ritual (the chalice) all seem to indicate that these coins were not meant for general circulation. On the other hand, the closely controlled weight and the scattering of the coins as shown by isolated finds and hoards tend to demonstrate a wider use than merely that of temple priests[4].

The project is making progress with respect to its culminatory archive which it is hoped will be the standard reference on the subject. Much work yet remains to be completed and much data has yet to be collected and collated, but there is reason to expect that completion will see an authoritative text to fill the gaps in our knowledge about this series of coins.

NOTES:

[1]Abstracted from the report to the American Philosophical Society by Charles Colbert. This project is supported by a grant from the Johnson fund of the American Philosophical Society with subsidiary aid from Antioch College.

[2]X-ray diffraction tests reveal only the surface nature of the specimen being examined. The pieces tested showed about 4% copper content with other trace elements. Because copper combines readily with soil and atmospheric components to form soluble salts which are leached out, the silver content indicated by these tests is probably erroneous.

[3]A. Reifenberg. ANCIENT JEWISH COINS. Jerusalem, 1947. 2nd edition, p. 37.

[4]The large hoard recently discovered at Masada does not tend to show use of the shekels as circulating money since Masada was the last outpost of the rebellion and it is logical that some of the treasures must have been removed to that place when Jerusalem was evacuated.

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THE STYLISTIC VARIETIES OF THE REFORMED FOLLES OF THEOPHILUS

by Michael Marx

During the latter part of his reign, Theophilus (829-842) introduced coins of several new types and legends. One of the new types issued was a follis on which the reverse legend reads: ΘEOFILE AVGOVSTE SV NICAS instead of the large familiar M. This new or reformed follis appears to have been issued c. 839-842.[1] The obverse reads ΘEOFIL' BASIL' with the half-length figure of Theophilus, bearded and standing facing; he wears a crown with tufa (fan shaped ornament) containing several pellets, and wearing consular dress of lozenge pattern. In his left hand he holds the globus cruciger; in his right, the imperial labarum which is ornamented with a cross, sometimes with streamers below it.

It is interesting to note that in the most recent study of these folles, D. M. Metcalf has divided the reformed folles of Theophilus into seven stylistic groups: A and B attributed to the mints of the Metropolitan region; D either to Thessalonike or the Trebizond; C and E to Patrai; and F and G to Corinth.[2] The seven stylistic groupings are of three different weight standards, each assumed to have been issued in a different region of the Empire.[3] The heaviest coinage he attributes to the Metropolitan region, a slightly lighter coinage to central Greece, and the lightest to northern Greece.

It is also interesting to note the differences in style between the first group (A, B and D) in which the obverse types have three pellets in the tufa on the emperor's crown and streamers attached to the labarum which he holds in his right hand and the second group (C, E, F and G), the obverses of which have four pellets in the tufa and no streamers. The first three groupings of Metcalf's classification, belong to, or are assigned to, northern Greece, while the last four are assigned to southern Greece.

For further comparison I studied and examined the earlier published specimens of the reformed folles, especially those illustrated by Sabatier, Wroth, Ratto and Lhotka.[4] I also examined two folles from my own collection and one from the collection of Richard Peterson. Using all of these examples, I tried to compile a table incorporating the information as to weights, sizes, lettering varieties, stylistic details, number of pellets in tufa and noting the presence or absence of streamers under the labarum.

By means of this careful classification it now becomes possible to divide the reformed folles of Theophilus into two large groups: 1) those in which the labarum has streamers, and 2) those in which the labarum appears without streamers. The folles of the first group can be subdivided further into smaller sections by means of the number of pellets contained in the tufa. The specimens of this group which I examined contained two, three, four, five,[5] six or seven pellets. In the second main group (no streamers under the labarum) we know of two specimens published in the *BMC* and 3 examples in Metcalf. In the two *BMC* examples (Nos. 18 and 19, p. 423) both have three pellets in the tufa of the crown, are 28.75 mm. each and each weighs over 7 grams. Those listed by Metcalf (pp. 26, 260, Pl.II) all contain four pellets in the tufa and range from 25 to 27 mm., the heaviest of these weighing 6.6 gm. and the lightest, 5.13 gm. It is obvious, from an observation of the type style, that the specimens in the British Museum collection were issued in another part of the Empire than those published by Metcalf.

Further, the first large group (labarum with streamers) can be divided again into two distinctly different sections: 1) large module, and 2) small module. Wroth lists in the *BMC* seven examples (Nos. 20-26, p.423) of the large module group, the largest specimen being 28.75 mm., weighing 8.942 gm., while the smallest is 26.25 mm. weighing 6.868 gm. They all seem to be neatly executed, and for this reason we must agree with Wroth in his attribution of these pieces to the Constantinople mint. Metcalf's types A and B also can be attributed to the Constantinople mint for the same reasons.

Wroth then lists three more specimens in the *BMC* (Nos. 27-30, p.424) which appear to be of the small module subsection, with streamers. Since they are also nicely executed the assumption may be made that they were struck not far from Constantinople for use in the Asiatic areas of the Empire or in Anatolia. Metcalf's D type belongs to this group, but varies slightly: note the very wide curved E[6] of the inscription on the reverse. We are inclined to believe that this distinctive lettering originated in the Thessalonike mint and has no connection with Trebizond.

As for the second large group (labarum without streamers), we believe that it can be connected with two areas of the Byzantine Empire. According to Metcalf, one of these must be southern Greece.[7] and the other an unknown provincial area. The specimens of the southern Greece section of the group range in weight from over 5 gms. to 6.66 gms. and in size

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF SOME EXAMPLES OF THE REFORMED FOLLES OF THEOPHILUS

A	B	Reference	Pellets	Grams	Mntr.	Mint
LABARUM WITH STREAMERS	Large Module	Metc. A	∴ 3	7.08	27.00	Metr.[1]
		B	∴ 3	5.55	27.00	"
		BMC 20	⁘ 4	8.359	27.50	Con.[2]
		21	⁘ 4	8.942	28.75	"
		22	⁘ 4	7.128	28.75	"
		Ratto 1824	⁘ 5	– –	– –	"[3]
		Sabat. 11	⁘ 6	?	27.00	"
		BMC 23	⁘ 6	7.516	27.50	"
		24	⁘ 6	6.868	26.50	"
		26	⁘ 6	8.682	28.75	"
		*Marx II	⁘ 6	7.00	26.50	"
		BMC 25	⁘ 7	8.877	27.50	"
	Small Module	BMC 30	∴ 2	4.017	22.50	Con?
		Metc. D	∴ 3	4.29	24.00	Thes.?[4]
		*Peterson	∴ 3	4.8	23.50	Thes.?
		BMC 28	∴ 3	3.110	21.25	Con?
		29	⁘ 4	4.406	26.50	"
		27	⁘ 4	3.520	23.75	"[5]
WITHOUT STREAMERS	Unknown	BMC 18	∴ 3	7.905	28.75	S.Italy?
		19	∴ 3	7.581	28.75	"
	South. Greece	Metc. E	⁘ 4	5.13	25.00	Patras?
		Z	⁘ 4	5.31	28.00	Corinth[6]
		Z	⁘ 4	6.66	27.00	"
		*Marx I	⁘ 4	5.4	27.50	"

Coins indicated by an asterisk (*) are published here for the first time. All three are illustrated in Figs. 3-5.

[1]Metcalf attributes to Metropolitan region. Same as Constantinople

[2]Con. stands for *Con(stantinople).*

[3]Similar to BMC 22, but with five pellets instead of four.

[4]The inscription on the reverse of this type has wide circular E's and narrow V's. Cf. the follis from the Peterson collection in Fig. 4.

[5]Valuable and clear specimen of the type.

[6]Crude type, the eyes are vertical lines with horizontal bars at top and bottom.

from 25 to 28 mm. These seem to be more crude in style; the eyes of the emperor are actually vertical lines with horizontal bars at top and bottom. The two specimens published in *BMC* mentioned above (Nos. 18 and 19, p.423) are much heavier and possibly belong to another area of the empire.

The possibility now arises that the differing number of pellets on the tufa of the emperor's crown were employed by the mints to denote particular issues. But we must also consider the possibility that they were used as indications of the years of Theophilus' reign. The reformed folles were probably struck in the mints of Greece in large quantities of several millions during a one or two year period, but not continuously during every year of Theophilus' reign. On the other hand, the Constantinople mint seems to have issued folles of the large module type with streamers, almost every year of the remainder of his reign. Also, it seems that, at frequent intervals, the Constantinople mint issued small module folles with streamers for use in Anatolia.

Further, we may add that it appears that during the reign of Theophilus, the Empire used the following mints to issue folles: *Constantinople* (where the heavy and light folles were issued, including the one referred to by Metcalf as Metropolitan, the heavy one for use in the capital and the light one for use in Asia Minor); *Thessalonike* (for northern Greece) and *Patras* and/or *Corinth* (for use in southern Greece). Finally, folles were also struck in the mints of southern Italy, but their issues must become a special subject for numismatic study.

NOTES:

1. Wroth, Warwick, *Catalogue of the Imperial Byzantine Coins in the British Museum*, Vol. 2, p. 423.
2. Metcalf, D. M., *Coinage in the Balkans*, 820-3155, p. 26. I have changed the letters ΑΒΓΔΕϚΖ to ABCDEFG.
3. *Ibid.*, p. 27.
4. Lhotka, John F., *Introduction to East Roman Coinage*, p. 107.
5. Ratto, R., *Monnaies Byzantines*, p. 90, no. 1824.
6. Metcalf, D. M. *op. cit.*, p. 260.
7. *Ibid.*, pp. 26-7.

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Fig. 1. Follis of Theophilus of the traditional type with the M on the reverse (Sabatier, Pl.xliii, 12).

Fig. 2. Reformed follis of the period 839-842. The unique one illustrated in Sabatier (Pl.xliii, 14).

Fig. 3. Follis from my collection (See TABLE, Marx II).

Fig. 4. Follis from the Richard Peterson collection (See TABLE)

Fig. 5. Follis from my collection (See TABLE, Marx I).

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BOOK REVIEWS

David W. MacDowall, "The Byzantine Coin Hoard Found at Isthmia," *Archaeology* XVIII 1965, pp.264-267.

This interesting hoard belongs to the period ca.580 AD and contains 209 large copper coins and 61 tiny coins: 40 *nummia* (= follis) and 20 *nummia* (semi-follis) pieces of Justinian I (527-565), Justin II (565-578) and Maurice Tiberius (582-602). The oldest 40 and 20 *nummia* pieces are those with the facing bust of Justinian issued from 538 onward. From the tiny ($\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 gram) coins, only 29 pieces are identifiable, with the monograms of Marcian (450-457), Leo (457-474), Zeno (474-476), Anastasius (491-518) and Justinian. There are also 12 pieces of the Ostrogoths and Vandals, and 7 clipped late Roman bronze coins of Valentinian II (375-392).

As the author observes, this hoard gives valuable evidence on the types of bronze currency circulating in this period in Greece. He also notes that the absence of 40 and 20 *nummia* pieces of the period prior to 538 indicates that earlier coins were gradually withdrawn after the new heavy standard was introduced. During the reigns of Justin II and Tiberius, when the weight of coins issued under the same denominations was reduced, it is a surprising element that the heavier issues of Justinian were still in circulation. MacDowall thinks in this case that the market value of the older coins was greater than their face value. The counting of the weights proves this fine point. From ten folles of 538 the mint would have enough metal to strike *sixteen* in the period 565-578.

From the observation that eleven of the 68 semi-folles of Justin II (minted at Thessalonika) were overstruck on 16 *nummia* pieces of Justinian (a denomination minted only at the Thessalonika mint), MacDowall suggests that this can explain the rarity of 16 *nummia* coins. He dates the withdrawal from circulation of the 16 *nummia* pieces in the year 574/5 and concludes that their overstriking and transformation into semifolles was completed in 575/6. As for the small change pieces, the fact that those found in the Isthmia hoard are as early as the reigns of Valentian II and Marcian indicates that they remained in circulation for many years and were not influenced by the monetary reforms of Anastasius or Justinian.

MacDowall's article belongs to that rare type of numismatic literature which contributes new knowledge and evidence which will guide future research. We consider its study a must for all numismatists and collectors who are at work on the Byzantine series.

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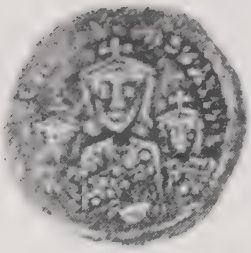

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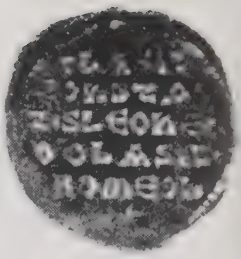

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Notice: At this writing we are still waiting to receive specimens of the ANS collection of Alexandrian coins in order to include photographs in the reprinting of Curtis: **Tetradrachms of Roman Egypt.** We have also come in contact with a gentleman who has several unique types which we hope to include. Therefore, there will be a delay in publication of the book of at least a month or two until we can accumulate all of this added information and the photographs.

HELLENIC-ROMAN COINS

BOX 326

HEWITT, NEW JERSEY

A PROPOSED WEIGHT CLASSIFICATION OF THE FOURTH CENTURY COINS

by R. J. Windler Jr.

The economic collapse of the Roman Empire which apparently occurred during the reign of Gallienus (d. 263) was followed by complete monetary chaos. The familiar Roman system of Aureus, Denarius, Sestertius, Dupondius and As disappeared and the only remaining coin which had any familiar appearance was the now highly debased and crudely executed piece which seems to have evolved from the silver coin generally known as the "Antoninianus."

The literary sources state, and to some extent the coins verify, that subsequent emperors attempted to reform or at least stabilize the currency. The coins also attest that these reforms were, for the most part, unsuccessful. This is probably due to the erosion of Imperial authority which prevented the government from taking the crucial steps necessary to end the fiscal confusion.

With Diocletian, who changed the concept of government and turned the Imperial authority into a totalitarian rule, drastic changes were possible. From his reforms and those of Constantine who completed the renovation of the Empire, a new currency system evolved.

This system never has been fully explored or categorized. Indeed, the bewildering array of types, mints, metals, sizes and weights has repulsed any easy systematic classification. Perhaps too, more attention has been devoted to coins of the earlier period which more readily lent themselves to scientific study.

The coins of the fourth century exist in metrological anarchy. Aside from the dependable solidus and its fractions the silver and bronze coins seem to defy classification. At the same time, these coins are the result of a presumably planned reform. It is true that this reform evolved over a period of time and through trial and error, but since it was a human project, it is logical to assume that there was a basic system intended and into which the coins can be classified.

The fourth century was also a time of turmoil. The Western Empire was suffering under the repeated attacks of the barbarians. Christianity was quickly establishing itself as the last vestiges of paganism were being eradicated. The crucial battle of Hadrianopolis which brought stunning defeat to Roman arms was fought. It can surely be presumed that this turmoil

is reflected in the currency system, causing deviations from the intended plan.

This paper presents a hypothetical tabulation of fourth century coins. Included are many denominations, some of which might easily be questionable. Quite probably, too much is included, and the chart should be modified, perhaps divided into several charts each with a terminus post quem. Its purpose is two fold—first, a crude attempt to place the coins into some recognizable system; second, to open a channel of future investigation into the problem of metrological classification.

Some facts are known to us from which a foundation can be laid to postulate further. The solidus was minted at 72 to the Roman pound. From its inception this one coin was a standard which did not vary. There is no question that gold was the base of the monetary system since the inception of the solidus in 312 or that it continued for centuries thereafter.

The question of the place of silver is more moot. It seems highly likely that this metal was in such short supply that it could no longer fill its function in the currency system. It is probable that the cause of the successive debasement of the third century was due more to an increasing shortage of silver than to any other factor. It is possible that an attempt was made at bi-metalism, but not enough facts are available to make a critical judgment. It is also possible that the light miliarense was intended to be the old denarius. In any event, the ratio between silver and gold must have varied sharply from time to time and from place to place. Hence a system as postulated in the table, because of its adjustments to weights, would have made it possible for money changers to adjust the current balance between silver and gold.

Bronze coins have been shown, since these too must have been systematized. The old Roman tradition which felt it unnecessary to adjust carefully the weight of the AES coinage must have continued, and since bronze was strictly fiduciary, little attention need be paid to careful weight adjustment. Consequently the position of the various bronzes in our table is most subject to question. It is possible, too, that too many denominations have been contemplated.

The Roman libre or pound of 327.6 grams had been in use since Republican times. The pound we divided into scripulae (scruples) of 1.13 grams, there being 288 scripulae to the libre. The table shows the relative weights of various coins of the fourth century in grams and in scripulae and the number of coins produced to the pound.

PROPOSED WEIGHT CLASSIFICATION OF THE FOURTH CENTURY COINS

Gold	Silver	Aes	Scripulae	Coins per lb.	Wt. in grams
dble. solidus			8	36	9.10
			7		
1½ solidus	dble. argentius	centenionales	6	48	6.82
	heavy miliarense	follis	5	60	5.45
solidus	light miliarense	AE 2	4	72	4.55
	argentius	AE 3 large	3	96	3.42
semis	siliqua	AE 3 small	2	144	2.26
	light siliqua	AE 4 large	1½	192	1.70
tremis		AE 4 small	1⅓	216	1.50
	half siliqua	AE 4 petite	1	288	1.13

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CLUB NEWS

Those of our members who have been associated with the ACCA since its beginning are aware of many difficulties which the club has faced and finally has been able to overcome. The time is now approaching for the club to get on with the sober and important purposes for which it alone is uniquely qualified.

April 1st will mark the beginning of the new official year at which time our new officers will commence their duties. Their term will see many projects, some held too long in abeyance, come to pass. Our library must be built up and made available on a circulating basis. A program must be designed for beginners in ancient numismatics and made available to them. Our membership must be expanded, closer relationships must be worked up with other professional organizations both within numismatics and allied fields. Most important, our facilities and peculiar knowledge must be made available to the general public.

At the same time, those projects already underway — our local chapter program and our research committee — must be strengthened and supported.

A statement of aims of the ACCA must be prepared and our constitution revised to permit greater member voice and participation in club affairs. More members are going to have to accept office and committee assignments to carry out the projects already being formulated by our incoming officers. 1966 will, we trust, be a year filled with activity and vital consequences — one in which every member can share.

It is only fitting that as our present officers, Mr. Broughton and Mr. Malter, reach the end of their terms we pay our respects to their efforts which have been so nobly expended to bring the ACCA to its present position. They have worked long and hard, often with little reward, and yet it is through their efforts that the club has successfully weathered its infant pains. Upon their retirement from office the entire ACCA renders them its deepest gratitude and wishes them the highest success in whatever endeavors they proceed to now.

SOME MORE REPRINTS

S. Pozzi, Monnaies grecques antiques provenant de la collection de feu le Professeur S. Pozzi. In French $19.00

J. N. Svoronos, Synopsis de mille coins Faux du faussaire C. Christodoulos 6.50

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